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A study in the attitudes of sixth grade children toward respect for authority

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A STUDY IN THE ATTITUDES OF SIXTH GRADE CHILDREN TOWARD RESPECT FOR AUTHORITY

Submitted by

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the problem

The purpose of this study is to determine the attitudes of sixth grade pupils in regard to their respect for authority.

Although some data on civic and social competencies are available on a high school level, little study and research have been done on the elementary level. Juvenile delinquency is a problem of the schools today. It is highly probable that many of these problems can be averted by greater concentration on civic and social attitudes of elementary school children.

This field is much too broad to develop in one study, so but one aspect has been chosen for this study, that of respect for authority. Authority is the privilege to command because of mental or moral superiority. Respect for authority is the acquiescence to a command, to generally accepted social customs, or to a formal creed of behavior. The constituent elements of authority involve emotional preferences coming from fear, a desire for admiration, a desire for social approval, or for survival. The motives for respect for authority

change as a person grows older. The child's concept of authority is governed not only by his training, but also by his peers. It is inherently a short range of view, but the only point of view of which the child is capable. It is, therefore, a problem of the school as well as one of the home to build a healthful attitude on the part of the child toward respect for authority.

To determine respect for authority the writer has built a test in which the reactions of sixth grade children to respect for authority are found through vicarious situations. This test consists of authoritative items in the phases of parental, school, police, church, and school patrol boy superiority. According to Wilson,[1] ''Perhaps the most difficult to measure of all educational outcomes are pupil's emotional reactions, their attitudes, and points of view. Yet, as to civic competency, these attitudes are of the greatest significance.''

Aims of the test

1. To discover whether or not the sixth grade child knows the socially correct responses to authoritative situations.

2. To discover whether or not the sixth grade child acts according to his knowledge of the socially correct

(1) Howard E. Wilson, Education for Citizenship, The McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1838. p.64

thing to do.

3. To discover whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to intelligence.

4. To discover whether or not there is a difference in responses of boys and girls.

5. To discover whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to the occupational status of the father.

6. To discover whether or not there is a difference in the responses of children according to emotionality ratings.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

Review of the literature

Respect for authority and a willingness to abide by the decisions of the majority are among the fundamentals of democracy. Authority does not restrict personal liberty. According to Blanton and Blanton[1], ''Authority serves two purposes, while it is the means by which the child is taught to adjust himself to the group, it is the means by which the child is taught also to what extent he may express his own wishes and desires. True authority is not oppressive: it gives a sense of security and happiness, because it teaches him his place in the group and teaches him to prevent the group from trampling him underfoot psychologically.''

Neither does liberty detract from authority. Cleveland[2] suggests that there are no powers except those delegated, so liberty does not detract from authority. In a democracy there is insistence on obedience to authority and cooperation under executive direction.

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(1) Smiley Blanton and Margaret Gray Blanton, Child Guidance, Century Co., 1927. pp. 166-167

(2) Frederick Albert Cleveland, American Citizenship, Ronald Press Co., 1927. p. 328

Society demands a respect for authority and obedience to law. In order to fit a child to take his rightful place in society, a certain amount of compulsion is necessary during his school years. Kirkpatrick[1] believes that at first obedience must be to the child personal obedience, but the child should understand that the one he obeys is not forcing his own wishes upon him, but is the enforcer of laws that must be obeyed by others. At this time the reasons for these laws do not have to be explained in detail to the child. It is sufficient if the child feels that they are fixed, as are customs. It is necessary to have a certain amount of obedience and conformity to customs and laws which are recognized as fundamental. This is of great value in preparation for forming and adhering to higher ideals of duty and right.

There are many ideas as to what constitutes authority and what impels respect and obedience to authority. Where there is authority there is necessarily some kind of power behind it. There is some effect on the person if he does not obey. Obedience to authority is a course of action taken by him. Respect for authority involves a number of basic attitudes. The dictionary defines the term attitude as ''any habitual mode of regarding anything: any settled behavior or conduct, as indicating opinion or purpose regarding anything.''

(1) Edwin A. Kirkpatrick, Guidance of Childhood and Youth, Macmillan Co., 1927. p. 3

Cleveland[1] defines the word authority as follows: ''Thus using the word 'authority,' it does not signify anything different from what is customarily understood. We may quote from Webster: 'To authorize, to clothe with authority, warrant, or vest with legal power, to give a right to act, to empower, to make legal.' A person in authority is 'one who has legal or rightful power, a right to command or to act: power exercised by a person by virtue of his office or trust'.''

Blanton and Blanton[2] describe authority as the way by which the child is taught the demands of the group. If authority is thrust too harshly upon the child, he becomes anxious, worried or timid, or he may become negative, stubborn or quarrelsome.

Dewey[3] attributes regard for authority to moral nature or conscience. He states, ''We have a moral nature, a conscience, call it what you will. This nature responds directly in acknowledgment of the supreme authority of the Right over all claims of inclination and habit. We may not act in accordance with this acknowledgement, but we still know that the authority of the moral law, although not its power, is unquestionable. Men may differ indefinitely according to what their experience has been

(1) Frederick Albert Cleveland, op. cit., p. 252

(2) Smiley Blanton and Margaret Gray Blanton, op. cit., p. 166

(3) John Dewey, Human Nature and Conduct, Henry Holt, 1922. p. 325

as to just what is right, what its contents are. But they all spontaneously agree in recognizing the supremacy of the claims of whatever is thought of as Right. Otherwise there would be no such thing as mortality but merely calculations of how to satisfy desire.''

Custom is a vital factor in conditioning the development of an understanding and respect for authority. Children are governed by their peers. The attitudes of children are involuntarily based upon the attitudes of their families. According to Allport(1) custom is the successive influence of one generation upon another in matters of conduct. The edicts of custom are habits formed in the individual from earliest childhood. The additional force of convention is required by custom. He believes that custom goes deeper than convention, because convention is based upon simple attitudes of universality and conformity, but custom has not only these factors to enforce it, but also early habit fixation and strong social disapproval in case of departure from a customary mode.

Customs in the home may differ from those of the school or other social groups. A child is not always showing a disrespect for authority when he is disobedient, but a confusion as to what constitutes proper authority. Blanton and Blanton(2) say, ''Normal suggestibility may

(1) Floyd Henry Allport, Social Psychology, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. p. 394

(2) Smiley Blanton and Margaret Gray Blanton, op. cit., pp. 249-50

be defined as willingness to yield to proper authority, willingness to follow a crowd reasonably. Of course, the difficulty lies in the definition of the words 'proper' and 'reasonable'. Many times failure to accept authority is due to a lack of knowledge as to who is the proper authority.''

Just what are the realms of authority in which an elementary school child may become involved? First, comes the authority of the home which includes parents, older brothers and sisters, and sometimes grandparents or other relatives of the family. Allport[1] states that a permanent influence is left upon many personalities because of childhood relations between brothers and sisters. Persisting traits are the ascendance of the elder and the submission of the younger.

Next, comes the authority of the school which includes a great number of authorities, i. e., the teacher, the principal, the superintendent, the patrol boys, the group leaders in the classroom and on the playground, the monitors, and even at times the school janitors. The church shares with the school in its regard for authority. The various religious groups demand different degrees of respect for their authority.

Police authority is evident to the elementary school child. He knows that implicit obedience to officers of

(1) Floyd Henry Allport, op. cit., p. 365

the law is necessary in order to be a good citizen or to avoid difficult situations. Even the social life of the child involves situations where respect for authority is necessary.

These realms of authority do not always agree and the child becomes perplexed in his attitudes toward authority. According to Groves,[1] ''The boy, for instance, finds himself commanded by his parents who may or may not have the same point of view, his other relatives who are almost certain not to be fully sympathetic to the parent's program, the school authorities who necessarily represent a different purpose, officials of the law, the church, and above all, the Society maintained by his playmates. The last organization, although simple in character, is particularly effective in working out its authority. The boy may be willing to accept the control of the gang since this is closer to his own interests and understandings even though by so doing he finds himself constantly in trouble with his parents, his relatives, his teachers, the code of the church, and even the police. In such a medley of authority it is not strange that the boy is often puzzled and clings to the organization he best understands and most enjoys....''

Cleveland[2] gives the realms of authority as the

(1) Ernest R. Groves, Guidance of Childhood and Youth, Macmillan Co., 1927. p. 16

(2) Frederick Albert Cleveland, op. cit., p. 16

family, the play group, the business organization, the philanthropic agency, the army, the navy, the post office, political agencies, and in schools, where results depend on discipline.

Wickman[1] claims that a child's attitudes toward law and authority are sometimes a reflection of the attitudes of parents. She also asserts that the main feature of attacking forms of behavior is an expression of antagonism toward authority which is vested in parents, teachers, companions, social institutions, or the law.

Wickman[2] also states, ''What is acceptable behavior to one parent, teacher, or school system may become unacceptable when the child passes into the control of another parent, teacher, or school. No two families maintain the same requirements for the behavior of their children. The school may revoke the standards of conduct set up for a child in the home. The parent in turn often criticizes the teacher's requirements for the child's behavior. Racial, religious, educational customs and practices contribute heavily to differences in attitudes toward individual behavior.''

Despite the fact that the realms of authority are many and varied, the elementary school child still needs

(1) E. K. Wickman, Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes, The Commonwealth Fun, 1928. p. 143

(2) ibid., p. 3

training and guidance in his attitudes toward these agencies. Respect for authority is a necessary quality to instill in the youth of the elementary schools. There can be no form of democratic living unless these qualities are imbedded in the youth of the nation. Almack[1] says, ''Everyone needs training in government because everyone is subject to authority. In this country, not only is everyone subject to authority of government, but everyone helps to make authority. Furthermore, everyone may expect at some time or other in his life to be an agent of authority: that is, to hold public office. He, therefore, needs training in obedience to law, the making of law, and the administration of law. This training the schools should provide.''

Ruch[2] maintains that people must follow certain laws of conduct in order to live in groups. It is our morality, conventions and laws which are useful in keeping one person from violating the rights of another. The rules of society are accepted by most of us because social approval will be denied us if we disregard them.

The need for training in the area of authority is further substantiated by Kirkpatrick[3] when he says that

(1) John C. Almack, Education for Citizenship, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. p. 40

(2) Floyd L. Ruch, Psychology and Life, Scott, Foresman and Co., 1941. p. 624

(3) Edwin C. Kirkpatrick, op. cit., p. 4

the regulation of one's conduct in certain respects by authority is useful throughout life. He claims that the best time to establish these habits of mind is during the school age. He advocates a certain minimum ofblind obedience and conformity to customs.

According to Allport[1] unity and coordination would be impossible without a certain degree of subordination of individuals to one another and to the regular institutions of society.

Almack[2] attacks teacher autocracy by saying that it is unjustifiable in government. He maintains that such attitudes on the part of the teacher does not build up obedience and respect for law, but may lead to insubordination and contempt.

Wilson[3] asserts, ''Civic efficiency is ultimately evidenced only in behavior and is reflected in the general welfare of state and union.''

Conceding that there is a definite need for training elementary school children in attitudes for respect for authority, where does the responsibility for this training lie?

Pierce[4] states, ''The school world is the crucial

(1) Floyd C. Allport, op. cit., p. 391

(2) John C. Almack, op. cit., p. 41

(3) Howard E. Wilson, op. cit., p. 17

(4) Paul R. Pierce, ''Classroom Guidance of Democratic Living,'' School Review, 51:529, November, 1943

training ground for enlisting the assistance of others in guiding youth.''

Burton[1] contends that individuals are not excused from responsibility, but that misbehavior is now regarded as an outgrowth of the total life history of an individual. A democratic society is not possible unless all agencies accept their respective responsibilities in the training for citizenship.

As Miller[2] states, ''The least we can do in practical education seems to be to give little children understanding and practice in a consistent attitude toward certain regulations. Then we must give the same to bigger children, whether rules are made by the 'authorities' or by their own representatives. Finally, we the educators may hand them all diplomas and let them be free to manage themselves in society.''

Snedden[3] says, ''School discipline and order call chiefly for moral rather than civic qualities, but the public functions and the character of the school gives this institution far more incentive and opportunity to idealize and generalize moral virtues toward their cognate church, neighborhood, and vocational groups.''

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(1) William H. Burton, The Guidance of Learning Activities, D. Appleton Century Co., 1944. p. 566

(2) Carl G. Miller, ''Can We Teach Respect for Law?'', Education, 64:186, November, 1943

(3) David Samuel Snedden, Education Sociology, D. Appleton Century Co., 1924. p. 542

Minnick[1] places the responsibility of character training upon the whole world which she describes as educator-in-chief. Nothing could be more fatal than to place the entire responsibility upon the school.

Storm[2] places the entire responsibility upon the school. ''In fact, the survival of the democratic process depends on the activities of the school: if democracy is perpetuated, it will be because education is successful in implanting democratic discipline in our future citizens.''

Snedden[3] believes that the agencies which exert social control are the neighborhood, the home, the street or country side ''gang'', the police, the church, and the school. He claims that each of these agencies has its own forms of discipline which are socializing. However, he does not feel that these agencies consciously address themselves to the task of preparing for adult citizenship. He recommends improvements in the processes of these socializing units.

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(1) Kathryn C. Minnick, Character Training in the Public Schools, Boston University School of Education, Unpublished Thesis, 1928

(2) Grace E. Storm, ''Recent Trends in the Teaching of Citizenship'', Elementary School Journal, 44:327, February, 1944

(3) David Snedden, Civic Education, World BookCo., 1922. pp. 191-192

Appel[1] places the majority of the responsibility on the home and the school. He states that the emphasis in most schools in on things, not life. There is not enough teaching about the workings of emotions, which should be understood and controlled. Part of the building in mental health is education in emotion.

Perkins[2] states, ''Where then does the remedy lie? It lies in the hands of the public, which has been patient too long. If the public demands a disciplined school free from meddling interference, it will get it, for the public pays the bills. If it makes known that it will not tolerate indulgence and impractical theories, it will have no more of them. Educators are timid people.''

Pierce[3] expresses a broader viewpoint of the responsibility when he says, ''The school world is the crucial training ground for enlisting the assistance in guiding youth.''

Summary of research

Many interesting studies have been made on children's attitudes. The majority of these studies have been done on a high school or college level. The studies reported in this chapter deal only with attitudes on children on an elementary school level. There are different techniques

(1) Kenneth E. Appel, ''How Parents Change Children into Mental Misfits'', Reader's Digest, Vol. 45, No. 272:99, December, 1944

(2) Virginia Chase Perkins, ''More Children Out of Hand'', Atlantic Monthly, 172:62, July, 1943

employed in making studies of social attitudes of children. In the reported investigations, the writers have used the techniques of personal interview, a battery of written tests, an analysis of cumulative records, the questionnaire-test, and the situation followed by a set of 3-5 questions with yes- no responses. These s tudies have covered the same area of investigation which the writer is attempting in the study of the attitude of sixth grade children toward respect for authority. The authors have reported findings and drawn conclusions from the analyses of the data as affected by sex, intelligence, socio-economic status, and emotionality. The writer expects to make similar studies in this study.

Meltzer[1] used the personal interview technique to find the extent of children's understandings of social concepts, selected from such periodicals as the New Republic and from such books as Walls's Great Society. The number of concepts understood progressed steadily upwards from grade five to grade twelve. The correlation of grasp of these concepts with mental age was .58, with C. A. .55, with occupational status .36, with grade .69, with E. A. .80. In four groups those children who used Social Science pamphlets showed superiority in grasp of concepts over those who had not used the pamphlets. The

(1) Hyman Meltzer, ''Children's Social Handicaps'', Teachers College Bureau of Publications, T. C. Contribution No. 192, 1925. pp. 1-89

mean of the eighth grade pupils who used the pamphlets was higher that that of the twelfth grade pupils who had not used them. Meltzer used 333 pupils from grade four through the high school in his study. The children talked and the interviewer did all of the writing, which is a rare method used in a study of attitudes. The study shows that there is a steady growth of the children's grasp of the concepts from grade to grade.

Hartshorne et al[1] used a battery of tests measuring attitudes. The twenty-three tests used in securing the total score intercorrelate .30 on the average, sufficiently to give the battery a theoretical validity of .95. There were 850 subjects in grades five through eight from three towns used in the study. The three techniques employed were called the scale response, the distributed response, and paired comparisons.

The authors report numerous factors involved in certain characteristic attitudes of children, among which the attitudes of friends in the same class appear to be of great importance: suggestibility is retarded, as are sibling behavior and socio-economic status. The intercorrelations of traits such as honesty and service are not high. According to this study the consistency of character as pupils have achieved is the product of

(1) Hugh Hartshorne, Mark A. May, and Frank K. Shuttleworth, Studies in the Nature of Character, Macmillan Co., 1930. pp. 32-379

experience preceding the fifth grade in school and does not materially increase as they move up to the eighth grade. It was concluded from the study that a common code or morale may develop when the demands of any one group are similar for all the children involved: and that the average child of grades five to eight is chiefly a creature of circumstances and his conduct is ethically unorganized.

They found no appreciable difference between boys and girls in age, mental age, emotional stability, suggestibility, and intelligent participation in the life of the school and the home.

Lichtenstein[1] attempted to measure the influence of education on two attitudes as exemplified by stressing them in connection with teaching over a period of one year. About nine hundred children in grades four to six were used in the study. An experimental group and a control group were used to test the attitude, scientific open-mindedness: while ballots were used to test the attitude, preference of outdoors to movies.

The results of the study indicated that school grades did not significantly affect the choices of responses: that boys and girls do equally well on tests of

(1) Arthur Lichtenstein, ''Can Attitudes Be Taught?'' The John Hopkins University Studies in Education, Baltimore: The John Hopkins Press, 1934, pp. 1-75

superstitions, prejudices, and scientific attitudes: scores were not significantly related to performance of the test.

Hattwick and Stowell[1] analyzed 500 cumulative records to determine whether the given child's work habits and his social habits were adequate or whether they were creating problems, and as to the types of behavior which the teacher used as examples of poor work, or social adjustment and the relative frequency of each of these.

The study indicated that there was a slight tendency for children who were babied to develop more social difficulties and poorer work habits through the years. The tendency for children from well-adjusted homes was in the opposite direction. The study showed that the work of the school depends to a marked extent on parental attitudes.

Cooper[2] reports on a study of the reactions of sixth grade children to commercial motion pictures as a medium for character education. He used 807 children from selected sixth grades in three cities to make the investigation. The interview and questionnaire-test

(1) Berta Weiss Hattwick and Margaret Stowell, ''The Relation of Parental Over-Attentiveness to Children's Work Habits and Social Adjustments in Kindergarten and the First Six Grades in School'', Journal of Educational Research, 30:169-76, November, 1936

(2) Charles David Cooper, ''The Reactions of Sixth Grade Children to Commercial Motion Pictures as a Medium for Character Education,'' Journal of Experimental Education, 7:268-73, June, 1939

technique was used. He found that the subjects learned to be courteous, considerate, and careful as the result of seeing features in which attitudes were stressed. Also, there was some evidence that s ubjects t ended to improve their posture, dress, and health. Derived values varied with economic status, nationality, religion, and type of neighborhood.

Lockhart[1] tested 3500 pupils in grades four to twelve. The test had ten items which were situations followed by 3-5 questions with yes-no responses. The purpose of the study was to determine the attitudes of children toward law. The Otis Self-Administering Tests of Mental Ability and the Sims Score Card for the Socio-Economic Status were also used in the study.

The investigation showed that sex has but little influence on attitude toward law. No difference existed between the attitude of boys and the attitude of girls toward law in grades four to nine. A wide difference was found to exist between the two extreme groups using intelligence as a factor in each of the lower grades, but the difference became less when compared in higher grades. It was assumed that the children with a low intelligence score made a somewhat lower score through inability to comprehend the questions of the tests. The

(1) Earl G. Lockhart, ''The Attitudes of Children Toward Law'', University of Iowa Studies, University of Iowa City, Vol. III, No. I:8-38, August 15, 1930

two extreme groups using intelligence as a factor were Group A, 120 I.Q. and Above and Group D, 90 I.Q. and Below.

Socio-economic status appeared to exert a positive influence on the attitude of children in grade six, but socio-economic status is of no consequence in determining attitude toward law. As measured by the test, children gradually approach the adult attitude toward law as they advance through the grades. Children's attitudes toward law approach that of adults as the groups rise in the scale of intelligence.

Voelker[1] made an experimental study of the functions of ideals and attitudes in social education by using two experimental groups and two control groups. Groups of boy scouts and one group of girls were used in the study. Children under ten years of age were not used. The ideal of trust-worthiness was used as the objective of the training. A series of ten tests were administered to all groups. The results of the experiment indicated that ideals and attitudes perform an important function in the control of human conduct. Those groups which had been subjected to Scout training had a

(1) Paul Frederick Voelker, ''The Function of Ideals and Attitudes in Social Education'', Columbia University Contributions to Education, T. C. Contribution No. 112, 1921, pp. 1-126

higher average of trust-worthiness per individual than those groups which had not been subjected to the training. Voelker concluded from his study that it is probably true that the highest and finest ideals can be acquired, only by those who are superior in intelligence.

Jordan[1] employed the I. E. R. (Institute of Educational Research) technique in making a study of 275 children in grades four through seven. It was found through this study that the amount of cheating under the conditions of the test was unexpectedly large, ranging from 43 to 85 per cent and the tendency was for a slight increase in the upper grades. Age and cheating were found not substantially related, the correlations having an average of .130. Little relation was found between socio-economic level. The correlations between the Sims scores and cheating scores of individuals and of their friends correlated in a very significant way, suggesting that there is a definite tendency for friends to influence each other in cheating. It was found that children of greater intelligence tend to cheat less than those of less intelligence.

The present study will be made by using a similar technique as employed by Lockhart. He used a test of ten items which were situations followed by 3-5 questions

(2) A. M. Jordan, ''Cheating in the Classroom, with Emphasis on the Influence of Friends'', Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934, pp. 437-471

with yes-no responses. The writer will attempt to build a test using a situation in which the child has to show respect for authority. The situation will be followed by two or three questions with multiple choice responses. From the results of this test the writer will attempt to make studies similar to those reported in the research.

CHAPTER III

PLAN OF THE STUDY

The writer has attempted an experimental study made through the use of a test on respect for authority to be administered to a large number of sixth grade pupils. The first step in the construction of this test was to prepare a list of social behaviors acceptable from both the social and mental hygiene points of view. The realms of authority to which sixth grade children are subjected were classified as those of the parents, the school, the church, the police, and the school patrol. Under these headings a list of social behaviors was added. Based on this list a set of thirty-five situation items was built.

The first items were prepared by giving a very brief description of a situation in which a child had to show respect for authority. The situation was followed by three questions.

1. What should the child do?
2. What do you think the child did?
3. What would you do?

Each question was followed by four multiple choice answers. The same responses were used in different order after each question. An example of such an item follows:

Roger was angry, so he threw a rock at Jimmy. The rock broke the school window. ''Roger, you must pay for the window,'' said the teacher.

What should Roger do?

a. Pay for the window
b. Blame it on Jimmy
c. Say he did not break it
d. Make Jimmy help pay for it ____

What do you think Roger did?

a. Blame it on Jimmy
b. Say he did not break it
c. Pay for the window
d. Make Jimmy help pay for it ____

What would you do?

a. Say he did not break it
b. Make Jimmy help pay for it
c. Blame it on Jimmy
d. Pay for the window ____

The sixth grade children of the writer's class were used to help build these situations and to make response items. This was done by having the children write short stories about things which had happened to them or someone they knew. To get some of the responses, the children were given situations and asked to write answers to the three questions. A sample of one of the stories written by the children follows:

''What Happened to Carol

Carol was very happy. Today was her birthday. Her mother made pies in the morning and went to the bakery shop for a cake. She told Carol to watch the pies cool on the window sill and take care of her little brother.

Carol was playing with her brother when she heard the doorbell. Her friend, Joan, had come over to play.

I would have said that I could not come out to play and not let her in the house, but Carol had other ideas. She said, ''I can't go out doors, but you may come in the house and play...'' Carol didn't finish because she heard a crash! She turned around and saw baby brother on a table having fun knocking pies off the window sill! Carol didn't know what to do until mother came home. Mother scolded Carol for not taking care of the house. I would have sent Joan home and taken baby brother off the table.''

After the construction of the initial test of thirty-five items, sample items were discussed with the Graduate Seminar group in the Boston University School of Education. The advisability of using three questions after each situation was considered. It was agreed that the last question, ''What would you do?'' was irrelevant. The reason for this was the assumption that the child would place himself in the position of the child in the story and would make the same responses to the second and third questions. Thus, it was decided that the third question should be omitted.

The test of thirty-five items, two questions, and four responses was submitted to the Seminar group. Each member checked what he considered the socially correct responses, and wrote criticisms of the items. When the tests were returned to the writer they were checked to get the socially correct answers as selected by the group. The items which were highly criticized by two or more members of the group were discarded. Through these

criticisms it was also decided to have only three responses instead of the original four. Thus, the finished test of twenty-five items evolved.

It is significant to mention here that all items relative to church authority, except one, were eliminated. The feeling of the group seemed to be that items pertaining to the church had no place in a test of this type. Due to the fact that the pupils taking the test would be associated with many different churches or with no church, the correct answers might be difficult to determine. The one item which was left in the test could easily be applied to a schoolroom situation. A copy of the twenty-five items used in this study follows.

1. Jack, the school patrol captain, stopped the children at the crossing. Dan wanted to go ahead, but Jack said that he must wait for the signal.

   What should Dan do? _____

   (a) go ahead
   (b) argue with Jack
   (c) wait for the signal✓

   What do you think Dan did? _____

   (a) argue with Jack
   (b) wait for the signal✓
   (c) go ahead

2. Laura was told to mind the baby while mother did an errand. Sue came by while mother was away and asked Laura to come out and play.

   What should Laura do? _____

   (a) go out to play
   (b) take the baby out
   (c) stay with the baby✓

✓ the socially correct answer

What do you think Laura did? _____

(a) take the baby out
(b) stay with the baby✓
(c) go out to play

3. ''Jean,'' said the teacher, ''Throw your gum in the waste basket. You know that you should not chew gum in school.''

What should Jean do? _____

(a) swallow her gum
(b) throw half of it away
(c) throw her gum in the waste basket✓

What do you think Jean did? _____

(a) throw half of it away
(b) swallow her gum
(c) throw her gum in the waste basket✓

4. Mother warned Tom to come home right after school. During the day Jim invited Tom to a meeting at his house.

What should Tom do? _____

(a) go with Jim
(b) go home✓
(c) stay at school

What do you think Tom did? _____

(a) stay at school
(b) go with Jim
(c) go home✓

5. Paul tried to get into the movies without a ticket, but the police officer saw him. The officer said that he would have to buy a ticket.

What should Paul do? _____

(a) buy a ticket✓
(b) sneak by the police officer
(c) run away from the police officer

What do you think Paul did? _____

(a) run away from the police officer
(b) buy a ticket
(c) sneak by the police officer

6. Bobby's mother sent him to the store for sugar which she needed right away. She told him to hurry back. On the way back Bobby met Bill who wanted him to play with the boys.

What should Bobby do? _____

(a) go right home with the sugar
(b) play with the boys
(c) watch the boys play

What do you think Bobby did? _____

(a) watch the boys play
(b) go right home with the sugar
(c) play with the boys

7. George, a patrol boy, overheard Tom and Sam swearing. George told them to report to the principal.

What should Tom and Sam do? _____

(a) pretend not to hear George
(b) report to the principal
(c) argue with George

What do you think Tom and Sam did? _____

(a) report to the principal
(b) argue with George
(c) pretend not to hear George

8. The sign said ''No Trespassing,'' but Judy wanted to pick some flowers on the lot. Just as she started to do so, the police officer saw her. He said that she would have to leave the lot.

What should Judy do? _____

(a) pick the flowers
(b) hide from the police officer
(c) leave the lot

What do you think Judy did? _____

(a) hide from the police officer
(b) pick the flowers
(c) leave the lot✓

9. Barry told his mother that the teacher gave him low marks because she did not like him. ''Barry, take your written work home. Have your mother sign the papers, and return them to me,'' said the teacher.

What should Barry do? _____

(a) throw away his papers
(b) have the papers signed✓
(c) leave the papers at school

What do you think Barry did? _____

(a) have the papers signed✓
(b) throw away his papers
(c) leave the papers at school

10. Tommy threw candy papers on his front lawn. Tommy's father told him to pick up the papers.

What should Tommy do? _____

(a) leave the papers
(b) throw more papers
(c) pick up the papers✓

What do you think Tommy did? _____

(a) pick up the papers✓
(b) leave the papers
(c) throw more papers

11. George whispered to Martin during the Sunday School service. The minister walked by and told the boys to be quiet.

What should George and Martin do? _____

(a) stop talking✓
(b) lower their voices
(c) keep talking

What do you think George and Martin did? _____

(a) keep talking
(b) stop talking✓
(c) lower their voices

12. Judy was left alone to take her bath. Mother told her to be sure to wash behind her ears.

What should Judy do? _____

(a) wash behind her ears✓
(b) skip the bath
(c) wash only her hands

What do you think Judy did? _____

(a) skip the bath
(b) wash behind her ears
(c) wash only her hands

13. Children were not allowed to walk in front of the school buses. Emily started to walk in front of one of the buses. The patrol boy called her back.

What should Emily do? _____

(a) walk in front of the bus
(b) go back✓
(c) stop in front of the bus

What do you think Emily did? _____

(a) stop in front of the bus
(b) go back✓
(c) walk in front of the bus

14. Mary had not done her homework, so she wanted to stay away from school. Her father told her that she must go to school.

What should Mary do? _____

(a) go to school✓
(b) hide in the garage
(c) stay at home

What do you think Mary did? _____

(a) hide in the garage
(b) stay at home
(c) go to school✓

15. Joe threw a snowball at Jane. ''Joe,'' called the teacher, You know that you are not allowed to throw snowballs at the girls. Go into the school. You cannot play anymore today.''

What should Joe do? _____

(a) go into the school✓
(b) say that he forgot
(c) throw more snowballs

What do you think Joe did? _____

(a) say that he forgot
(b) go into the school✓
(c) throw more snowballs

16. David had a small radio by his bed. Mother told him not to turn it on after shewent down stairs. There was a program which David wanted to hear.

What should David do? _____

(a) turn on the radio
(b) leave the radio alone✓
(c) turn the radio on for just a minute

What do you think David did? _____

(a) turn the radio on for just a minute
(b) turn on the radio
(c) leave the radio alone✓

17. The police officer saw Benny take an apple from the fruit stand. He told Benny to put the apple back.

What should Benny do? _____

(a) argue with the police officer
(b) run from the police officer
(c) put the apple back✓

What do you think Benny did? _____

(a) run from the police officer
(b) put the apple back✓
(c) argue with the police officer

18. The principal saw Timmy throw some paper on the hall floor. ''Timmy,'' said the principal, ''Pick up the paper you just threw on the floor.''

What should Timmy do? _____

(a) pick up the paper✓
(b) keep walking
(c) talk back to the principal

What do you think Timmy did? _____

(a) keep walking
(b) pick up the paper✓
(c) talk back to the principal

19. Mac was a first grade pupil. Margaret lived near Mac. The patrol boy asked Margaret to see that Mac got home safely the first day of school.

What should Margaret do? _____

(a) go home with Mac✓
(b) let Mac go alone
(c) leave Mac at school

What do you think Margaret did? _____

(a) let Mac go alone
(b) leave Mac at school
(c) go home with Mac✓

20. Mother gave Frank a quarter to buy his lunch at school. Frank decided that he would like to go without his lunch and use the money for a movie after school.

What should Frank do? _____

(a) go to the movies
(b) buy his lunch✓
(c) buy comic books

What do you think Frank did? _____

(a) buy his lunch✓
(b) go to the movies
(c) buy comic books

21. Julia and Frances got into a fight while waiting for the school bus. The patrol boy told them to stop fighting.

What should Julia and Frances do? _____

(a) keep fighting
(b) stop until the patrol boy leaves
(c) stop fighting✓

What do you think Julia and Frances did? _____

(a) stop fighting✓
(b) stop until the patrol boy leaves
(c) keep fighting

22. The policeman told the children to stand back of the rope to watch the parade. Peggy could not see, so she wanted to crawl in front of the rope.

What should Peggy do? _____

(a) stay in back of the rope✓
(b) crawl in front of the rope
(c) go home

What do you think Peggy did? _____

(a) crawl in front of the rope
(b) stay in back of the rope✓
(c) go home

23. Bob thought it would be fun to throw tacks in the road so the tires would go flat. The officer saw Bob throwing the tacks in the road and told him to pick up the tacks.

What should Bob do? _____

(a) run away
(b) pick up the tacks✓
(c) throw more tacks

What do you think Bob did? _____

(a) pick up the tacks✓
(b) run away
(c) throw more tacks

24. Herb was playing too roughly in the gym. Coach said, ''Herb, go to the bench. You may not play any more today.''

What should Herb do? _____

(a) go to the bench✓
(b) keep playing
(c) talk back to the coach

What do you think Herb did? _____

(a) keep playing
(b) talk back to the coach
(c) go to the bench✓

25. The patrol boy asked Johnny to help Susan across the street. Susan was lame. Johnny was afraid the boys would tease him about it.

What should Johnny do? _____

(a) help Susan across the street✓
(b) get someone else to help Susan
(c) let Susan cross alone

What do you think Johnny did? _____

(a) let Susan cross the street alone
(b) help Susan cross the street✓
(c) get someone else to help Susan

26. On the line below write your father's occupation.

_____

The tests were then given to 351 sixth-grade pupils in the schools of five different towns and cities. A separate page with directions for the teacher and a chart to be filled out by the teacher accompanied each set of tests. The tests were keyed by numbers in order to

identify them in making the study. The children were not asked to sign their names on the papers as it was felt that they would give a truer reaction by not having to sign the papers.

In order to make a study of responses according to emotionality ratings the Pintner et al Aspects of Personality test was given to a sampling of 100 of the 351 pupils tested. The children who made a percentile score of 0-25 on Part III of this test were considered as emotionally unbalanced. The children who made a percentile score of 26-75 on Part III of this test were considered as fairly well balanced emotionally. The children who made a percentile score of 76-100 on Part III of this test were considered as well balanced emotionally. The study was made between the emotionally unbalanced children and the emotionally well balanced children.

Studies to be Made

The studies to be made on the results of this test are:

1. A comparison of the total score responses to the questions: What should the child do? and, What do you think he did?
2. A comparison of responses according to intelligence ratings.
3. A comparison of responses as given by boys and girls.
4. A comparison of responses according to occupational status levels of the parents.

5. A comparison of responses according to emotionality ratings.

Towns and Cities Used in the Study

City R has a population of 41,213. There are 5068 pupils in the elementary schools. The valuation is listed as $53,968,290 with a per pupil expenditure of $96.75. City R is also an industrial city. The pupils used in this study came from the families of the laboring group.

Town T has a population of 8003. There are 1487 pupils in the elementary schools of this town. The valuation is listed as $16,739,089 with a per pupil expenditure of $131.50. This is a town of a mixed population of very high and low economic status. The pupils used in this study were mostly in the low economic grouping.

Town X has a population of 3830. There are 754 pupils in the elementary schools. The valuation is listed as $3,649,190 with a per pupil expenditure of $85.75. This is a mill town and the families of the majority of pupils used in this study are employed in the mills.

Town Y has a population of 49,786. There are 6691 pupils in the elementary schools. The valuation is listed as $130,310,100 with a per pupil expenditure of $141.99. The pupils used in this study came from one of the poorer sections of the city.

City M has a population of 75,840. There are 12,812 pupils in the elementary schools of this city. The valuation is listed as $125,639,450 with a per pupil expenditure of $89.38. City M is an industrial city. The pupils used in this study came from a high economic level of the city.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes of sixth-grade pupils in regard to their respect for authority. The studies which have been made from the results of the test which was administered in connection with this study are:

1. A comparison of the total score responses to the questions: What should the child do? and What do you think he did?
2. A comparison of responses according to intelligence ratings.
3. A comparison of responses as given by boys and girls.
4. A comparison of responses according to occupational status levels of the parents.
5. A comparison of responses according to emotionality ratings.

Tables summarizing the results of the test are found in this chapter. There are tabulated results dealing with each aim of the test.

The data we e analyzed to determine whether or not the sixth-grade child knows the correct responses to authoritative situations and whether or not the child acts according to his knowledge of the socially correct thing to do.

TABLE I

COMPARISON OF THE CHOICE OF SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES AS TO WHAT THE CHILD SHOULD DO AND WHAT THE CHILD DID

Item	No.	M.	S.D.	$S.E._{M.}$	Diff.	$S.E._{D.}$	C.R.
Should	351	24.06	2.78	.15	11.07	.48	23.06
Did	351	12.99	8.54	.46			

The Mean of the 351 pupils on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual <u>should</u> do is 24.06 compared with 12.99 as to what they think the individual <u>did</u> in each situation. The Critical Ratio being 23.06 shows this difference statistically significant.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not there was a difference in responses of boys and girls.

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF SEX DIFFERENCES IN THE CHOICE OF THE SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RELATIVE TO WHAT THE CHILD DID

Sex	No.	M.	S.D.	$S.E._{M.}$	Diff.	$S.E._{D.}$	C.R.
Boys	170	12.89	8.41	.64	1.29	.85	1.51
Girls	181	11.60	7.69	.57			

The Mean of the boys on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual in each situation did do is 12.89 compared with 11.60 for the girls. The Critical Ration being 1.51 shows this difference not statistically significant. The chances are 87 in 100 that this is a true difference in favor of the boys.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not the sixth-grade boy knows the correct responses to authoritative situations and whether or not the sixth-grade boy acts according to his knowledge of the socially correct thing to do.

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF THE CHOICE OF SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES BY BOYS AS TO WHAT THE CHILD SHOULD DO AND WHAT THE CHILD DID

Item	No.	M.	S.D.	$S.E._{M.}$	Diff.	$S.E._{D.}$	C.R.
Should	170	23.57	3.46	.25	10.68	.67	15.94
Did	170	12.89	8.41	.63			

The Mean of the 170 boys on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual should do is 23.57 compared with 12.89 as to what the individual did in each situation. The Critical Ratio being 15.94 shows this difference statistically significant

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not the sixth-grade girl knows the correct responses to authoritative situations and whether or not the sixth-grade girl acts according to her knowledge of the socially correct thing to do.

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF THE CHOICE OF SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES BY GIRLS AS TO WHAT THE CHILD SHOULD DO AND WHAT THE CHILD DID

Item	No.	M.	S.D.	$S.E._{M.}$	Diff.	$S.E._{D.}$	C.R.
Should	181	24.59	.88	.06	12.99	.82	15.84
Did	181	11.60	7.69	.57			

The Mean of the 181 girls on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual <u>should</u> do is 24.59 compared with 11.60 as to what they think the individual <u>did</u> in each situation. The Critical Ratio being 15.84 shows this difference statistically significant.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to intelligence. The intelligence group study was made by the following classification:

Group I I.Q. 90 and below
Group II I.Q. 91 to 110
Group III I.Q. 111 and above

This table shows the comparison of I.Q. Groups I and III.

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF INTELLIGENCE DIFFERENCES IN THE CHOICE OF THE SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RELATIVE TO WHAT THE CHILD DID

I.Q. Groups	No.	M.	S.D.	S.E. M.	Diff.	S.E. D.	C.R.
90 and below	61	14.34	8.24	1.04	2.23	1.28	.58
111 and above	110	12.11	7.79	.68			

The Mean of the pupils with an I.Q. of 90 or below on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual did do is 14.34 compared with 12.11 for the pupils with an I.Q. of 111 and above. The Critical Ratio being .58 shows this difference not statistically significant. The chances are 44 in 100 that this is a true difference in favor of the pupils with an I.Q. of 90 or below.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to intelligence. This table shows the comparison of I.Q. Groups I and II.

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF INTELLIGENCE DIFFERENCES IN THE CHOICE OF THE SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RELATIVE TO WHAT THE CHILD DID

I.Q. Groups	No.	M.	S.D.	S.E. M.	Diff.	S.E. D.	C.R.
90 and below	61	14.34	8.24	1.04	1.24	.50	.40
91 to 110	91	13.84	9.19	.68			

The Mean of the pupils with an I.Q. of 90 or below on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual in each situation did do is 14.34 compared with 13.84 for the pupils with an I.Q. of 91 to 110. The Critical Ratio being .40 shows this difference not statistically significant. The chances are 31 in 100 that this is a true difference in favor of the pupils with an I.Q. of 90 or below.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to intelligence. This table shows the comparison of I.Q. Groups II and III.

TABLE VII

COMPARISON OF INTELLIGENCE DIFFERENCES IN THE CHOICE OF THE SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RELATIVE TO WHAT THE CHILD DID

I.Q. Groups	No.	M.	S.D.	S.E. M.	Diff.	S.E. C.	C.R.
91 to 110	180	13.84	9.19	.68	1.73	.95	1.82
111 and above	110	12.11	7.79	.74			

The Mean of the pupils with an I.Q. of 91 to 110 on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual in each situation did do is 13.84 compared with 12.11 for the pupils with an I.Q. of 111 and above. The Critical Ratio being 1.82 shows this difference not statistically significant. The chances are 93 in 100 that this is a true difference in favor of the pupils with an I.Q. of 91 to 110.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to the economic status of the father. The economic group study was made by the classification as listed below:(1)

(1) William C. Kvaraceus, Juvenile Delinquency and the School, World Book Company, 1945. p. 91

Group I	Professional and Semi-professional
Group II	Proprietors Clerical-Sales Skilled Workers
Group III	Domestic and Service Unskilled Workers Emergency Relief (WPA) and other

TABLE VIII

COMPARISON OF ECONOMIC DIFFERENCE IN THE CHOICE OF THE SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RELATIVE TO WHAT THE CHILD DID

Econ. Group	No.	M.	S.D.	S.E. M.	Diff.	S.E. D.	C. R.
I	31	11.97	7.81	1.22	1.13	1.40	.80
II	151	13.00	8.59	.69			

The Mean of the pupils in Economic Group I on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual in each situation did do is 11.97 compared with 13.00 for the pupils in Economic Group II. The Critical Ratio being .80 shows this difference not statistically significant. The chances are 58 in 100 that this is a true difference in favor of the pupils in Economic Group II.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to the economic status of the father. This table shows

the comparison of Economic Group II and Economic Group III.

TABLE IX

COMPARISON OF ECONOMIC DIFFERENCE IN THE CHOICE OF THE SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RELATIVE TO WHAT THE CHILD DID

Econ. Group	No.	M.	S.D.	S.E. M.	Diff.	S.E. D.	C.R.
II	151	13.00	8.59	.69	.05	.99	1.70
III	140	12.95	8.53	.72			

The Mean of the pupils in Economic Group II on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual in each situation did do is 13.00 compared with 12.95 for the pupils in Economic III. The Critical Ratio being .99 shows this difference not statistically significant. The chances are 91 in 100 that this is a true difference in favor of the pupils in Economic Group II.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to the economic status of the father. This table shows the comparison of Economic Group I and Economic Group III.

TABLE X

COMPARISON OF ECONOMIC DIFFERENCE IN THE CHOICE OF THE SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RELATIVE TO WHAT THE CHILD DID

Econ. Group	No.	M.	S.D.	S.E. M.	Diff.	S.E. D.	C. R.
I	31	11.97	7.81	1.22	.98	1.41	.69
II	140	12.95	8.53	.72			

The Mean of the pupils in Economic Group I on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual in each situation did do is 11.97 compared with 12.95 for the pupils in Economic Group III. The Critical Ratio being .69 shows this difference not statistically significant. The chances are 51 in 100 that this is a true difference in favor of the pupils in Economic Group II.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to emotionality ratings. The emotionality study was made by giving the Pintner et al Aspects of Personality[1] test to a sampling of 100 pupils of the 351 pupils taking the test of the writer. Scores of Part III, Emotionality,

(1) Rudolph Pintner, John J. Loftus, George Forlana, and Benjamin Alster, Aspects of Personality, World Book Company, New York, 1937

of the Aspects of Personality test were put into the three following groups:

Group I Percentile Score of 0 to 25
Group II Percentile Score of 26 to 75
Group III Percentile Score of 76 to 100

TABLE XI

COMPARISON OF EMOTIONALITY DIFFERENCES IN THE CHOICE OF THE SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RELATIVE TO WHAT THE CHILD SHOULD DO

Emot. Group	No.	M.	S.D.	S.E. M.	Diff.	S.E. D.	C.R.
III	23	23.69	3.55	.69	.09	.89	.10
I	26	23.78	3.14	.65			

The Mean of the Emotionally Balanced children on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual in each situation should do is 23.69 compared with 23.78 for the Emotionally Unbalanced children. The Critical Ratio being .10 shows this difference not statistically significant. The chances are 8 in 100 that this is a true difference in favor of the Emotionally Unbalanced children.

The data were analyzed to determine whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to emotionality ratings. This table shows the comparison of the two extreme groups on what the child in each situation did.

TABLE XII

COMPARISON OF EMOTIONALITY DIFFERENCE IN THE CHOICE OF THE SOCIALLY ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES RELATIVE TO WHAT THE CHILD DID

Emot. Group	No.	M.	S.D.	S.E. M.	Diff.	S.E. D.	C.R.
III	26	15.70	6.78	1.33	5.48	1.98	2.76
I	23	10.22	7.07	1.47			

The Mean of the Emotionally Balanced Children on the twenty-five situations as to what they think the individual in each situation did is 15.70 compared with 10.22 for the Emotionally Unbalanced children. The Critical Ratio being 2.76 shows this difference not statistically significant. The chances are 99 in 100 that this is a true difference in favor of the Emotionally Balanced children.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes of sixth-grade pupils in regard to their respect for authority.

Aims of the test

The aims of the test were:

1. To discover whether or not the sixth-grade child knows the socially correct responses to authoritative situations.

2. To discover whether or not the sixth-grade child acts according to his knowledge of the socially correct thing to do.

3. To discover whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to intelligence.

4. To discover whether or not there is a difference in responses of boys and girls.

5. To discover whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to occupational status of the father.

6. To discover whether or not there is a difference in responses of children according to emotionality ratings.

Procedure

A test of twenty-five items was built. The test contained items of correct social attitudes in regard to the child's respect for authority and also his personal reaction to these same items. Three multiple choice responses were given at the end of the first question to establish the child's knowledge of the right thing to do. The same responses were given at the end of the second question to determine the child's personal reaction to the same situation.

The tests were given to 351 sixth-grade pupils in five towns and cities. The tests were tabulated and the results checked. Tables were established. An analysis was made of the study.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn from the analyses of the study and the data obtained:

1. Sixth-grade children have an adequate knowledge of the socially correct thing to do in regard to respect for authority.

2. Sixth-grade children do not react in the same degree according to their knowledge of the socially correct thing to do in regard to respect for authority.

3. No significant difference existed between the choices of boys and the choices of girls in responses relative to what the child should do and what the child

did in attitudes of respect for authority.

4. Intelligence of sixth-grade children showed no significant difference in choice of responses relative to what the child *did* in attitudes of respect for authority.

5. Economic status of sixth-grade children showed no significant difference in choice of responses relative to what the child *did* in attitudes of respect for authority.

6. Emotionality of sixth-grade children showed no significant difference in choice of responses relative to what the child *did* in attitudes of respect for authority.

Implications for teaching

The results of the study indicate the following implications for teaching:

1. Training has been much the same for all groups, regardless of sex, intelligence, emotionality, or occupational status and regardless of who or what has done the training.

2. There is a need for further training to bring actual behavior nearer socially acceptable goals.

3. The average need of training for all boys and girls seems to be about the same.

Suggestions for further study

1. Using this same test on the same children after

a period of one or two years to determine if the social attitudes have made any appreciable change.

2. Using this same test on a different group of sixth-grade pupils and comparing the results.

3. Making an internal analysis of the causes of choices made by pupils

4. Presenting the same idea with a different test form to the same pupils and correlating the results.

5. Making a similar study of other social attitudes of sixth-grade children.

6. Making a study of definite procedures the school can take to build correct social attitudes on the part of the children.

7. Making a specific validation of the test technique by using more adequate criterialavailable, perhaps through observation, anecdotal records, or clinical case studies, to note whether or not the test responses of those children who are known to behave in a certain way in authoritative situations respond differently than do those children who are known to respond in an acceptable way to authoritative situations.

8. Making the same study on lower and higher grade levels.

9. Identifying what kinds of social aims are necessary.

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